

Dietary supplementation with ferric tyrosine improves zootechnical performance

and reduces caecal *Campylobacter* spp. load in poultry

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Short title: Effect of ferric tyrosine in broilers

Abstract –

1. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effect of ferric tyrosine on the reduction of *Campylobacter* spp. and zootechnical performance in broilers exposed to *Campylobacter* spp. using a natural challenge model to simulate commercial conditions. Additionally, the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of ferric tyrosine against common enteropathogens were evaluated.
2. On day 0, 840 healthy male day-old birds (Ross 308) were randomly allocated to 6 replicate pens of 35 birds and fed diets containing different concentrations of ferric tyrosine (0, 0.02, 0.05 and 0.2 g/kg) in mash form for 42 days.
3. Overall, broilers fed diets containing ferric tyrosine showed significantly improved body weight at day 42 and weight gain compared to the control group. However, birds fed ferric tyrosine ate significantly more than the control birds so significant improvements in FCR were not observed.
4. Microbiological analyses of caecal samples collected on day 42 of the study showed, per gram sample, 2-3 log₁₀ reduction in *Campylobacter* spp. and 1 log₁₀ reduction in *Escherichia coli* in the groups fed diets containing ferric tyrosine compared to the control.

36 5. The MIC of ferric tyrosine was >400 mg/L for *C. jejuni* and >200 mg/L for *E. coli*
37 and *Salmonella enterica*, indicating that ferric tyrosine does not exert
38 antimicrobial activity.

39 6. Collectively, these results show that birds fed ferric tyrosine grew faster and
40 consumed more feed compared to the control birds indicating potential benefits
41 of faster attainment of slaughter weight with no significant reduction on feed
42 efficiency. Moreover, ferric tyrosine significantly reduces caecal *Campylobacter*
43 spp. and *E. coli* indicating potential as a non-antibiotic feed additive to lower the
44 risk of *Campylobacter* infections transmitted through the food chain.

45 **Keywords:** *Broilers, Campylobacter, control, ferric tyrosine, iron chelates*

Introduction

Campylobacteriosis is the most common human food-borne illness in the European Union (EU) (EFSA, 2017a) and along with other enteropathogenic bacteria such as *Salmonella* spp. and *Escherichia coli* (Chaveerach et al., 2004b; Santini et al., 2010; Hermans et al., 2011), *Campylobacter* spp. pose a serious public health risk. Contaminated chicken meat is a major source of human infection (Freidman et al., 2004; Adak et al., 2005; Bull et al., 2008), with *ca.* 200,000 reported cases of campylobacteriosis per year (EFSA, 2016). It is estimated that 75% of EU broiler meat samples are contaminated with *Campylobacter* spp. (EFSA, 2010). *Campylobacter* prevalence can be very high in poultry flocks, and is maintained along the food chain (EFSA, 2010, 2011). Reducing the number of contaminated carcasses entering the food chain will reduce the incidence of human cases of campylobacteriosis, hence *Campylobacter* control measures must be implemented on poultry farms to reduce human exposure (EFSA, 2011). It is estimated that reducing caecal *Campylobacter* numbers by 3 log₁₀ CFU/g reduces the public health risk by 90% (Romero-Barrios et al., 2013). However, controlling *Campylobacter* on farms poses several serious challenges. A single bird infected with low numbers of *Campylobacter* can infect a whole flock (Stern et al., 2001). Furthermore, chickens appear asymptomatic meaning that infection can go undetected (EC, 2017). Strict biosecurity measures have

proven to be effective in excluding *Campylobacter* from housed flocks in northern Europe and the United Kingdom, but are difficult to maintain in the long-term under normal farming conditions (ACMSF, 2004; Bull et al., 2008). Antibiotics are no longer a viable option for control and are subject to global pressure to reduce use drastically, due to growing concerns about antimicrobial resistance (AMR). EFSA has recently reported that *Campylobacter* strains isolated from humans and pigs are resistant to ciprofloxacin and tetracyclines, critically important antibiotics for human use (EFSA, 2017b). Similar data were also reported for *Salmonella* spp. and *E. coli* isolates from fattening pigs, highlighting the growing problem of AMR. The EU banned the use of antibiotics as growth promoters in animal feeds in 2006 (EMA/EFSA, 2017) hence, there is an urgent need for alternatives to antibiotics that can protect farm animals and limit the establishment and growth of bacterial pathogens, in particular zoonotic micro-organisms. Various feed additives have been proposed to reduce *Campylobacter* colonization in chickens, including probiotics, prebiotics, organic acids, bacteriophages, bacteriocins, and plant-derivatives, some of which have shown promising results (Hermans et al., 2011; Guyard-Nicodème et al., 2015). Recently, in-feed chelated iron (III) complexes have shown to be effective against *Campylobacter* and other pathogenic bacteria in broilers (Khattak et al., 2018). However, in the study performed by Khattak et al., birds were

artificially challenged, so the purpose of the present study was to investigate whether iron chelates have comparable effects under more natural infection conditions. The aim of the present study was to evaluate the effect of ferric tyrosine (TYPLEX[®], Akeso Biomedical Inc.) on broiler zootechnical performance and reduction of caecal *Campylobacter* spp. using birds naturally infected with *Campylobacter* spp. to simulate farm conditions. Additionally, the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of ferric tyrosine against common enteropathogens were evaluated to ascertain whether ferric tyrosine exerts antimicrobial activity.

Material and Methods

Experimental birds and diets

The study protocol was approved by the Roslin Nutrition Ltd. Ethical Review Committee and the UK Food Standards Agency (FSA). The study birds were managed and handled in compliance with local animal welfare standards and Directive 2010/63/EU.

A total of 1,100 pre-sexed, male day-old broilers (Ross 308) were purchased from a local commercial hatchery and delivered to the trial site (56.0092°N, 2.8594°W) in Aberlady, Scotland. The trial site was an experimental research facility with animal housing set up to simulate commercial conditions. Any chicks showing signs of ill-health, injury or in poor condition were excluded from the selection process. The poultry house was lit by

programmable artificial light. The standard lighting program was 23 hours of light per day, followed by 1-hour dark. Environmental conditions during the trial (temperature, humidity and ventilation rate) were automatically controlled and appropriate for the age of the broilers.

Ferric tyrosine (TYPLEX[®], Akeso Biomedical, Inc.) is an organo-iron complex of iron (III) complexed with L-tyrosine (4-hydroxyphenylalanine). The dietary treatments are summarised in Table 1. Control group (T1) was fed the basal diets (starter and grower). The treated groups received the basal diets supplemented with ferric tyrosine at 0.02 g/kg (T2), 0.05 g/kg (T3) or 0.20 g/kg feed (T4). Birds were fed a starter diet from 0 to 21 days and a grower diet from 21 to 41 days. All diets were formulated according to recommended specifications (NRC, 1996) then analysed (AOAC, 2007) for crude protein, ether extract, dry matter, iron and ash (Tables 2 and 3). Coloured tracers (Micro-Tracers Inc., San Francisco) were added to ferric tyrosine at 10% w/w, to enable visual confirmation of ferric tyrosine content in feeds. Proximate analyses of feed samples confirmed that feed nutrients were within expected ranges. Diets did not contain any other added iron compounds, coccidiostats or veterinary antibiotics. Feed and water were offered *ad libitum*.

Study design

On day 0, out of a pool of 1,100 birds, 840 healthy birds were randomly allocated to four treatment groups: Control (T1), ferric tyrosine at 0.02 g/kg feed (T2), 0.05 g/kg (T3) or 0.20 g/kg feed (T4) with six replicate pens per group, each pen containing 35 birds, according to a randomised complete block design. The birds were weighed by pen on arrival and then on 21 and 42 days of trial. Individual bird body weight (BW) was calculated by dividing the average weight of the pen by the number of birds. Feed consumption and feed refusals were recorded by pen on day 21 and 42. Mortality/culls were recorded daily. Average pen weight gain (AWG), feed intake (AFI) and feed conversion rate (FCR, feed/gain) were calculated for periods 0-21, 22-42 and 0-42 days on trial. At study end (42 days on trial), five birds/pen were humanely euthanized and caecal samples were collected and sent for microbiology. The trial terminated after 42 days and all birds were humanely euthanised by cervical dislocation and the carcasses destroyed.

***Campylobacter* spp. challenge**

A natural *Campylobacter* challenge model was used whereby study birds were bedded on fresh wood shavings, over which litter from the previous batch of broilers was laid. This natural challenge model was developed at Roslin Nutrition. The natural challenge model

was selected to replicate as far as possible, a natural infection under commercial conditions. Litter samples from previous batches of birds taken from the barn used for this study had tested positive for *Campylobacter* spp. Furthermore, birds previously housed in this barn had tested positive for *Campylobacter* spp. on several occasions.

Microbiology

On day 42, five birds per pen were humanely euthanised by cervical dislocation. The caeca from each individual bird were removed and tied off to preserve caecal contents, placed in a pre-labelled zip-lock bag and immediately placed on dry ice. The birds were processed in descending order of ferric tyrosine concentration with the control birds processed last to reduce the likelihood of cross-contamination. Sterile equipment was used and changed between each treatment group. Latex gloves were worn by study staff responsible for the removal of the caeca and were changed between treatment groups. The samples were sent *via* courier to the microbiology laboratory for *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli* enumeration by conventional culture. Caeca were stored frozen (-80°C) until analysis. Prior to analysis, the caecal samples were removed from the freezer and allowed to defrost. A sterile scalpel was used to cut off the blind end of both caecal sacks. From each caecal sack, 0.5 gram of caecal contents, in total 1g, was weighed into sterile Universal bottles, diluted with 2 ml sterile Maximum Recovery Diluent (MRD, Oxoid,

156 Basingstoke, UK), and mixed thoroughly. This constituted the 1:2 dilution (w/v). Further
157 serial dilutions were made in MRD and 10 µl of each dilution were inoculated on CCDA
158 and Brilliance CampyCount Agar plates (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK), incubated
159 microaerophilically at 42°C for 24-48 hr and then assessed for the presence or absence of
160 thermotolerant *Campylobacter* species. The individual caeca from five birds per pen were
161 analysed in duplicate (i.e. two replicate samples analysed per bird). Plates of an
162 appropriate dilution were selected and putative colonies enumerated. As a confirmatory
163 measurement, two colonies from each presumptively positive plate were selected and sub-
164 cultured onto paired blood agar plates (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK). These plates were
165 incubated at 37°C for 48 hr, one plate aerobically, one plate microaerophilically. The
166 presence of *Campylobacter* was indicated by a lack of growth aerobically and colonies
167 with *Campylobacter* morphology that grow microaerophilically. In addition, Gram stains
168 were carried out on all presumptively positive samples. As a further step, oxidase strips
169 (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) were used to confirm that samples were oxidase positive
170 (Cowan and Steel, 1965; Corry et al., 1995). The same series of samples were tested for
171 presence and absence of *E. coli* using chromogenic plates (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) and
172 incubated for 20 hr at 37°C, using the same procedure as reported for *Campylobacter*

enumeration. All results were expressed as colony forming units (CFU) per gram of caecal contents.

In addition, Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was conducted on five representative colonies isolated from CCDA plates from each treatment group to confirm the presence of *C. jejuni* vs. *C. coli*. The primer sets in the multiplex PCR target the identification of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli* based on the amplification of the two genes, *mapA* (589 bp) *C. jejuni* and *ceuE* *C. coli* (462 bp). In addition, a 16S primer (800bp) set was included as quality assurance of the DNA-preparation and analysis (internal control). Between 3-4 colony morphotypes from each treatment group were examined. To avoid false negatives three different concentrations of each isolate's template were used for PCR amplification.

Minimum inhibitory concentration assays (Growth inhibition studies with *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella enterica*)

Ferric tyrosine was subjected to two digestive phases to mimic digestion in the broiler gut. Ferric tyrosine is poorly soluble and the digestive steps were included to enhance product solubility and bioavailability. The pepsin digestion phase was performed to mimic conditions in the acidic proventriculus and the pancreatin digestion phase to mimic

conditions in the neutral duodenum. In brief, 240 mg ferric tyrosine was suspended in 5 ml of 50 mM Na-phosphate buffer pH 6.5. Then 2.25 ml of 150 mM HCl and 0.75 ml of activated pepsin (1 mg/ml) in 10 mM HCl were added; and the pH adjusted to pH 2.1. The resulting suspension was digested for 1 hr at 37 °C. Following the pepsin digestion phase, 4 ml of 150 mM NaHCO₃, 2 ml of bovine bile (125 mg/ml in 150 mM NaHCO₃) and 2 ml of porcine pancreatin (12.5 mg/ml in 150 mM NaHCO₃) were added to the digested suspension and the pH was adjusted to 6.5 with NaOH. The suspension was then left to digest for 3 hr at 37 °C after which the total volume was adjusted to 20 ml. A positive control (PC) was prepared by following the steps described above, with no added ferric tyrosine. The two digests (PC digest and 20 mM ferric tyrosine digest) were sterilized by UV light before use in the MIC studies.

For the MIC dilution study, *C. jejuni* strain DSM4688 grown in Müller-Hinton growth medium, and *E. coli* strain 156/97 F4+ and *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain IR715 both grown in Luria broth were added to 96-well microtitre plates (Merck, Germany) containing the ferric tyrosine digest at concentrations ranging from 25.5 to 408 mg/L for *C. jejuni* and 0.39 to 200 mg/L for *E. coli* and *S. enterica*, and the PC digest in dilutions corresponding to the amounts of digest added with the ferric tyrosine. The range of

209 concentrations selected were chosen to meet or exceed the practical doses used in feed.
210 All plates were incubated at 38°C. Plates containing *C. jejuni* were read after 24 hr by
211 measuring fluorescence with a Perkin Elmer multimode plate reader after rendering
212 bacterial cells fluorescent with SYBR Green dye (Sigma Aldrich, Darmstadt, Germany).
213 Plates containing *E. coli* and *S. enterica* were read at 4 and 20 hr. Turbidity was measured
214 using a spectrophotometer at a wavelength 600 nm. The MIC value was defined as the
215 lowest product concentration that yields >50% reduction in growth obtained in cultures
216 with no added test product.

217

218 **Statistical analyses**

219 The pen was considered the experimental unit for zootechnical and microbiological data.
220 The arithmetic means of body weight, average daily gain, average feed intake and feed
221 conversion rate were calculated per pen. The bacterial counts were transformed to \log_{10}
222 prior to analysis. Zootechnical and microbiological data were analysed by one-way
223 analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the General Linear Model (GLM) procedure in
224 Unistat (Unistat Ltd., Version 6.5) according to the following model: $Y_i = \mu + \alpha_i + \epsilon_i$,
225 where Y_i was the dependent variable, μ was the overall mean, α_i was the effect of
226 treatment, and ϵ_i was the residual error. For zootechnical and microbiological data,

significant differences were declared at $P \leq 0.05$, while near significant trends were considered for $0.05 < P \leq 0.10$. Arithmetic means were separated by Tukey's *post-hoc* comparison test. Results are reported as arithmetic means, the treatment probability (P) and the pooled standard error of the mean (SEM). If *Campylobacter* counts are randomly distributed among individual birds and pens, the counts obtained should follow a Poisson distribution, where variance equals the mean. If variance exceeds the mean this indicates overdispersion and demonstrates that the counts are not homogenous. The distribution of caecal *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli* counts were assessed for overdispersion by multiplying the variance to mean ratio by the number of degrees of freedom, and comparing the results with the chi-square distribution (Bliss and Fisher, 1953). Overdispersion was confirmed when $P < 0.05$.

Results

The effect of ferric tyrosine on broiler zootechnical performance during each study period is summarised in Table 4. The mortality rate (including culled birds) was low and there were no significant differences in mortality between treatment groups (T1, 6/210 (2.9%); T2, 4/210 (1.9%); T3, 4/210 (1.9%); T4, 6/210 (2.9%)). The majority (13/20) of birds were culled early in the study as poor or non-starters/small birds. During the first study period (0 to 21 days on trial), broilers fed diets supplemented with ferric tyrosine (T2, T3

246 and T4) weighed significantly more at day 21 (+110 g, +130 g, +63 g; 630, 650, 583 vs.
 247 520 g; $P<0.001$, $P<0.001$, $P=0.002$, respectively), and gained significantly more weight
 248 (+110 g, +130 g, +63 g; 588, 608, 541 vs. 478 g; $P<0.001$, $P<0.001$, $P=0.003$,
 249 respectively) compared to broilers fed the T1 Control diet. No significant differences were
 250 noted in feed efficiency (Table 4). Similarly, during the second study period (22 to 42
 251 days on trial), broilers fed T2, T3 and T4 diets weighed significantly more at study end
 252 (+213 g, +190 g, +180 g; 2,081, 2,052, 2,048 vs. 1,868 g; $P=0.002$, $P=0.008$, $P=0.009$;
 253 respectively) and broilers fed T2 and T3 diets consumed significantly more feed (+263 g,
 254 +219 g; 2,751, 2,707 vs. 2,488 g; $P=0.005$, $P=0.021$; respectively) compared to broilers
 255 fed the T1 Control diet. Broilers fed the T3 diet presented a significantly higher feed
 256 conversion ratio (1.934 vs. 1.845, 1.827 g; $P=0.014$, $P=0.003$; respectively) compared to
 257 broilers fed the T1 Control diet and the T4 diet. In addition, broilers receiving the T4 diet
 258 tended to gain more weight (+117 g; 1,465 vs. 1,348 g; $P=0.062$; respectively) and to eat
 259 more (+187 g; 2,675 vs. 2,488 g; $P=0.057$; respectively) compared to broilers fed the T1
 260 Control diet. During the overall study period (0 to 42 days on trial) broilers fed the diets
 261 containing ferric tyrosine (T2, T3 and T4) gained significantly more weight (+212 g, +182
 262 g, +179 g; 2,039, 2,009, 2,006 vs. 1,827 g; $P=0.002$, $P=0.008$, $P=0.009$; respectively) and
 263 ate significantly more feed (+385 g, +385 g, +258 g; 3,609, 3,609, 3,482 vs. 3,224 g;

264 P<0.001, P<0.001, P=0.027; respectively) compared to broilers fed the T1 Control diet.
 265 No significant differences in feed efficiency were noted between the groups
 266 supplemented with ferric tyrosine and the T1 Control group.
 267 Microbiological counts from the caecal samples collected on day 42 are summarised in
 268 Table 5. The results showed a significant reduction in *Campylobacter* spp. in birds fed
 269 T3 and T4 diets compared to the birds fed the T1 Control diet (1.8 log₁₀ reduction,
 270 P<0.001 and 2.5 log₁₀ reduction, P<0.001, respectively, Table 5 and Figure 1a) when
 271 samples were grown on CCDA medium. Moreover, when samples were grown on
 272 Brilliance medium, *Campylobacter* spp. counts were significantly reduced in birds fed
 273 T2, T3 and T4 diets compared to the birds that were fed the T1 Control diet (1.2 log₁₀
 274 reduction, P=0.043; 2.4 log₁₀ reduction, P=0.001 and 3.1 log₁₀ reduction, P<0.001,
 275 respectively, Table 5 and Figure 1b). There was a near-significant trend towards reduced
 276 *E. coli* counts in broilers fed the T4 diet compared to broilers fed the T1 Control diet (1.3
 277 log₁₀ reduction, P=0.083, respectively, Table 5 and Figure 1c). All individual birds in T1
 278 tested positive for *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli*. Furthermore, Figure 1 shows the
 279 distribution of the counts for each treatment groups and demonstrates that all pens in T1
 280 were positive for *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli*. Additionally, all birds from T2 and T3
 281 had positive *Campylobacter* counts and only two birds from T4, each from different pens

(pen 4 and pen 13), had a negative *Campylobacter* count. However, the other birds tested from pen 4 & 13 were positive. Analysis of the distribution of the counts in T1 birds and T1 pens showed that the distribution conformed to a Poisson distribution, where the mean and variance are equal, indicating that the counts were homogenous among control birds and pens and there was no significant overdispersion of counts. In comparison, significant overdispersion was observed for the *Campylobacter* counts from Brilliance media for T3 and T4 ($P=0.03$ and $P<0.001$, respectively).

Results from the PCR confirmed the presence of *C. jejuni* and *C. coli*.

The MIC value for *C. jejuni* was >400 mg/L (Table 6) and >200 mg/L for *E. coli* and *S. enterica* (Table 7). After 24 hr incubation, *C. jejuni* fluorescence increased by 29% when exposed to the PC digest at a dilution corresponding to 408 mg/L ferric tyrosine and increased by 13% when exposed to ferric tyrosine digest at 408 mg/L (Table 6). After 20 hr incubation, the turbidity of *E. coli* decreased by 61% with PC digest dilution corresponding to digest provided with 49.9 mg/L ferric tyrosine digest and decreased by 14% at 200 mg/L ferric tyrosine digest (Table 7). Similarly, *S. enterica* turbidity decreased by 37% after 20 hr incubation when exposed to the PC digest at 200 mg/L, and

turbidity increased by 5% after 20 hr when exposed to 200 mg/L ferric tyrosine (Table 7).

Discussion

Here, the effects of ferric tyrosine on broiler zootechnical performance and caecal *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli* were evaluated, along with an investigation into the MIC of ferric tyrosine against *C. jejuni*, *E. coli* and *S. enterica*. The results from the present study show that ferric tyrosine when administered in the feed of broilers, significantly reduced caecal *Campylobacter* spp. (T3 and T4), reduced *E. coli* counts (T4), and significantly improved weight gain at day 42, but did not affect FCR. Under the conditions of this study, ferric tyrosine added to diets at 0.02 g/kg, 0.05 g/kg and 0.20 g/kg led to a 1.2 log₁₀, 2.4 log₁₀ and 3.1 log₁₀ CFU/g reduction in caecal *Campylobacter* spp. counts, respectively, when samples were grown on Brilliance media. These results agree with those from a recent study that evaluated ferric tyrosine in broiler diets (Khattak et al., 2018). In that study, the authors reported caecal *Campylobacter* reductions of 0.8 log₁₀, 1.9 log₁₀ and 2.0 log₁₀ CFU/g in birds fed ferric tyrosine at 0.02 g/kg, 0.05 g/kg and 0.20 g/kg, respectively. A recent quantitative microbial risk assessment (QMRA) estimated that reducing caecal colonisation of birds at flock level by 2 log₁₀ or 3 log₁₀ CFU/g could reduce the incidence of human campylobacteriosis attributed to

318 contaminated broiler meat by 76% and 90%, respectively (Romero-Barrios et al., 2013).

319 Another earlier QMRA estimated that the incidence of disease in humans could be

320 reduced by 48%, 85% and 96% if carcass contamination with *Campylobacter* can be

321 reduced by 1, 2 or 3 log₁₀ CFU/g, respectively (Messens et al., 2007). According to these

322 figures, ferric tyrosine added to diets at 0.02 g/kg, 0.05 g/kg and 0.20 g/kg meets the

323 thresholds outlined in the two QMRAs, indicating that this product could be useful for

324 reducing the burden of *Campylobacter* on poultry farms, which may lead to a reduction

325 in broiler meat contamination at slaughter. Slight differences were observed in counts

326 when *Campylobacter* was grown on CCDA (*Campylobacter* Blood Free Selective Agar)

327 media, which can be used for the isolation of *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Campylobacter coli*

328 and *Campylobacter lari*. Brilliance CampyCount Agar is a medium specifically designed

329 for accurate, specific and easy enumeration of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter*

330 *coli* from poultry. It is a transparent medium on which *Campylobacter* produce distinct

331 dark red colonies, making identification and counting significantly easier than on

332 traditional charcoal or blood containing agar. PCR analysis confirmed the presence of *C.*

333 *jejuni* and *C. coli*. In addition to the reduction of caecal *Campylobacter*, a reduction in

334 caecal *E. coli* was also noted. Caecal *E. coli* counts were reduced by 1.0 log₁₀, 0.7 log₁₀

335 and 1.3 log₁₀ CFU/g in birds fed ferric tyrosine at 0.02 g/kg, 0.05 g/kg and 0.20 g/kg feed,

respectively. These results agree with those of Khattak et al. (2018) who reported reductions of 0.6 log₁₀, 0.8 log₁₀ and 1.2 log₁₀ CFU/g, respectively. It has been suggested that *E. coli* infection is established more easily in birds infected with *Campylobacter* (Bull et al., 2008) and an epidemiological study reported increased *E. coli* in chicken carcasses infected with *Campylobacter* (Duffy et al., 2014). Moreover, translocation of *E. coli* to the liver, spleen and caecum increases in birds infected with *C. jejuni* (Awad et al., 2016). This evidence would suggest that *Campylobacter* infection may positively influence the establishment of other pathogenic microbial populations, which could have serious implications for public health. In addition, the emergence of antibiotic resistance to *Campylobacter* spp. in humans and animals underlines the need for non-antibiotic alternatives to aid *Campylobacter* control on farms.

In this study, a natural challenge model was used, whereby study birds were housed in a barn that had housed broilers that previously tested positive for *Campylobacter* spp. on several occasions, and were placed in pens containing dirty litter from an earlier study, in which birds had tested positive for campylobacters. This study design did not quantify the level of infection before or during the study. However, on day 42, all caecal samples collected from control birds tested positive for *Campylobacter* spp., and the counts

followed a Poisson distribution indicating that the infection was homogenous among individual birds and pens. Furthermore, as the layout of pens followed a randomised block design, it is assumed that all pens were exposed to a similar level of *Campylobacter* spp. challenge. It has been shown that a single bird harbouring low numbers of *Campylobacter* can infect a whole flock, (Stern et al., 2001) and that once a flock becomes *Campylobacter* positive, the surrounding environment becomes widely contaminated (Herman et al., 2003) and contamination can persist for several weeks (Johnsen et al., 2006).

The MIC results presented in this study show that ferric tyrosine does not exert antimicrobial activity against the strains of *C. jejuni*, *E. coli* and *S. enterica* tested. MICs of >400 mg/L and >200 mg/L were reported for *C. jejuni* and *E. coli* and *S. enterica*, respectively, which are much higher than MIC thresholds used to monitor antimicrobial susceptibility and resistance. Furthermore, effective antimicrobials inhibit or kill *Campylobacter* spp. at low concentrations. According to recent guidelines, cut-off values for erythromycin, tetracycline and ciprofloxacin against *Campylobacter jejuni* are ≤ 4 mg/L, ≤ 2 mg/L and ≤ 0.5 mg/L, respectively, while the cut-off values for ampicillin, ciprofloxacin and colistin when tested against *Salmonella* spp. and *E. coli* are ≤ 8 mg/L, ≤ 0.06 mg/L and ≤ 2 mg/L, respectively (ECDC, 2016). This study has shown that ferric

tyrosine does not inhibit or kill *Campylobacter* spp. at concentrations up to 400 mg/mL, which is much higher than the ferric tyrosine concentration in the feed or broiler gut. Hence, these results indicate that ferric tyrosine does not exhibit classic antibiotic activity at up to 400 mg/mL.

Significant improvements in final body weight and weight gain were observed in the birds fed ferric tyrosine in comparison to the birds fed the control diet. Similar results were observed in the study conducted by Khattak et al. (2018). *C. jejuni* infection can significantly impair the growth performance of poultry (Awad et al., 2014a,) and a highly significant negative association between *Campylobacter* and feed efficiency has been reported (Sparks, 2016). *Campylobacter* infection downregulates the gene expression of various carrier proteins responsible for the absorption of nutrients (Awad et al., 2014b), leading to decreased nutrient adsorption and reduced growth performance.

Aspects of *Campylobacter* pathogenesis remain poorly understood, particularly molecular host-pathogen interactions. Human histo-blood group antigens (BgAgs) are often targeted by mucosal organisms to aid adherence prior to invasion. The BgAgs-binding adhesins of *C. jejuni* have been identified as the major subunit protein of the

flagella (FlaA) and the major outer membrane protein (MOMP) (Mahdavi et al., 2014).

MOMP is a member of the trimeric bacterial porin family that assists the mucosal

adhesion and invasion of *C. jejuni* (Mahdavi et al., 2014). Porins are involved in the

uptake of nutrients through the outer membrane by passive diffusion along concentration

gradients (Ferarra et al., 2016). MOMP is also able to bind to multiple host cell

membranes by promoting biofilm formation and auto-aggregation. The actual mode of

action of ferric tyrosine is unknown, but some bacteria use specific outer membrane

receptors to uptake ferric iron. It is thought that ferric tyrosine may be able to bind to

MOMP and block the interaction of MOMP on the surface of *Campylobacter* with the

BgAgs of the gastrointestinal epithelial cells. As a result, it prevents *Campylobacter*

colonization of the avian gut by reducing biofilm formation. A recent study has

demonstrated that ferric tyrosine inhibits biofilm formation *in vitro* (Khattak et al., 2018),

which supports the assumed mode of action.

Campylobacter remains a real threat to public health. With prophylactic administration

of antibiotics at farm level no longer a viable control option due to increasing antibiotic

resistance, there is a critical need to find non-antibiotic alternatives that can be used in

conjunction with on-farm biosecurity measures to reduce *Campylobacter* colonisation of

408 poultry flocks. In conclusion, the results from the present study illustrate that ferric
409 tyrosine can significantly reduce caecal *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli* and improve bird
410 weight gain, indicating that this feed additive may contribute to control of *Campylobacter*
411 spp. under commercial poultry production conditions.
412

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534

535 **Table 1.** Experimental diets

Treatment	Ferric tyrosine, g/kg feed	Microtraced ¹ Ferric tyrosine g/kg feed
T1	Control – 0 g/kg	0
T2	T1 + 0.02 g/kg feed	0.022 ²
T3	T1 + 0.50 g/kg feed	0.055 ²
T4	T1 + 0.20 g/g/feed	0.220 ²

¹1 g of microtracer contains 60,000 violet graphite particles

²Microtracers at 10% in test products

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538 **Table 2.** Feed composition and calculated analyses

Ingredients (%)	Starter Mash 1-21 days of age	Grower Mash 22-42 days of age
Wheat	69.862	67.354
Barley	-	7.5
Soybean meal, 48% CP	23.4	21.4
Sodium bicarbonate	0.13	0.22
Fishmeal 66%	2.5	-
Soy oil	1.3	1.4
L-lysine HCl	0.128	0.175
DL-methionine	0.123	0.164
Choline chloride	0.067	0.067
Dicalcium phosphate	0.13	0.32
Calcium carbonate	1.74	0.74
Sodium chloride	0.12	0.16
Minerals and vitamins ¹	0.5	0.5
Total	100	100
Calculated analyses (% , unless specified differently)		
ME Broiler, MJ/kg	11.526	12.346
Crude protein	21	19
Crude fibre	2.73	2.914
Ash	5.796	4.571
Dry matter	72.97	77.503
Crude fat	3.0	3.0
Lysine	1.18	1.050
Methionine	0.45	0.438
Methionine + cysteine	0.797	0.766
Threonine	0.75	0.661
Tryptophan	0.259	0.237
Calcium	1.102	0.651
Sodium	0.126	0.142
¹ Supplies per kg feed: Vit A: 0.010 MIU; Vit D ₃ : 0.005MIU; Vit E: 50mg; Vit K ₃ : 3 mg; Vit B ₁ : 2.0 mg; Vit B ₂ : 7 mg; Vit B ₆ : 5 mg; Vit B ₁₂ : 15 µg; Folic acid: 1.0 mg; Biotin: 0.2 mg; Pantothenic acid: 15 mg; 3a315 niacinamide: 50 mg; Mo 0.5 mg Mn: 100 mg; Zn: 80 mg; I: 1.0 mg; Cu: 10 mg; Se: 0.20 mg, Fe: 267 mg		

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Table 3. Analysed values of experimental diets

Sample	Diet	Ferric tyrosine, g/kg	Moisture (%)	Crude protein (%)	Ether extract (%)	Ash (%)	Fe (mg/kg)	Ferric tyrosine-microtracer (% recovery ¹)	Calculated ferric tyrosine content (g/kg)
T1	Starter	0	11.6	20.4	3.1	5.5	125	NA	NA
T2		0.02	11.5	20.3	2.9	5.4	189	131	0.026
T3		0.05	11.3	20.6	2.9	5.5	198	118	0.059
T4		0.20	11.3	20.5	2.9	5.3	196	107	0.214
T1	Grower	0	11.9	19.1	3.2	4.2	171	NA	NA
T2		0.02	11.9	18.7	3.0	4.2	159	98	0.020
T3		0.05	11.9	18.7	3.0	4.7	185	85	0.043
T4		0.20	11.5	19.1	3.0	4.4	166	81	0.162

NA – Not applicable; ¹Calculated ferric tyrosine = % recovery of microtracer x ferric tyrosine dose

Table 4. Effect of dietary addition of ferric tyrosine on broiler zootechnical performance parameters for each study period.

Parameter	Treatment				SE	Treatment P-value (ANOVA)
	T1 0 g/kg ferric tyrosine	T2 0.02 g/kg ferric tyrosine	T3 0.05 g/kg ferric tyrosine	T4 0.20 g/kg ferric tyrosine		
BW 1 d (g)	41.81	42.00	42.48	42.19	0.135	0.364 ^{NS}
BW 21 d, (g)	520 ^a	630^c	650^c	583^b	11.6	0.001
BW 42 d (g)	1,868 ^a	2,081^b	2,052^b	2,048^b	24.0	0.001
AWG 1-21 d (g)	478 ^a	588^c	608^c	541^b	11.5	<0.001
AWG 22-42 (g)	1,348 ^x	1,451 ^{xy}	1,401 ^{xy}	<i>1,465^y</i>	17.2	<i>0.055</i>
AWG 1-42 d (g)	1,827 ^a	2,039^b	2,009^b	2,006^b	24.0	0.002
AFI 1-21 d (g)	737 ^a	859^{bc}	901^c	807^{ab}	16.5	<0.001
AFI 22-42 (g)	2,488 ^{a,x}	2,751^b	2,707^b	2,675 ^{ab,y}	30.8	0.005
AFI 1-42 d (g)	3,224 ^a	3,609^b	3,609^b	3,482^b	42.8	<0.001
FCR 1-21 d (g)	1.539	1.462	1.484	1.488	0.0138	0.240 ^{NS}
FCR 22-42 (g)	1.845^a	1.898 ^{ab,y}	1.934^b	1.827^{a,x}	0.0124	0.002
FCR 1-42 d (g)	1.765 ^{xy}	1.771 ^{xy}	<i>1.798^y</i>	<i>1.736^x</i>	0.0087	<i>0.083</i>

Results show least square mean of 6 replicate pens. N° replicates/treatment = 6 pens of 35 male birds/ treatment; Means separated by Tukey Test. SE = Standard error; BW = mean bird body weight; AWG = mean pen weight gain; AFI = mean pen feed intake; FCR = feed/gain; NS – not significant. Values in same column with no common abc superscript are significantly different ($P \leq 0.05$); Values in same column with no common xy superscript exhibit a near-significant trend ($0.05 < P \leq 0.10$). Text in bold = significant result ($P \leq 0.05$); text in italics = near-significant trend ($0.05 < P \leq 0.10$).

Table 5. Caecal *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli* counts at 42 days of age (log₁₀ CFU/g)

Treatment	Dose g/kg	<i>Campylobacter</i> spp.		<i>E. coli</i>
		Caeca ¹	Caeca ²	Caeca
T1 Control	0	5.879 ^c	4.799 ^c	6.438 ^y
T2 Ferric tyrosine	0.02	4.989 ^{bc}	3.621 ^b	5.449 ^{xy}
T3 Ferric tyrosine	0.05	4.104 ^{ab}	2.399 ^a	5.736 ^{xy}
T4 Ferric tyrosine	0.20	3.366 ^a	1.681 ^a	5.118 ^x
SEM		0.1301	0.1448	0.1843
Treatment P-value (ANOVA)		<0.001	<0.001	0.104

N° replicates = 6 replicate pens per treatment. Results show group least square mean of 6 replicate pens

¹ Caecal samples cultured on CCDA medium; ² Caecal samples cultured on Brilliance medium, SEM = standard error of the mean.

Values in same column with no common abc superscript are significantly different (P≤0.05)

Values in same column with no common xy superscript exhibit a near-significant trend (0.05<P≤0.10)

Table 6. Effect of ferric tyrosine on the growth of *Campylobacter jejuni* DSM4688 and minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC).

Bacterium	Ferric tyrosine (mg/L)	Fluorescence after 24h incubation ($\times 10^{-6}$)		MIC (mg/L)
		¹ Positive control digest	Ferric tyrosine digest	
<i>C. jejuni</i>	25.5	2.58	2.38	> 400
	51	2.90	3.75	
	102	2.82	2.83	
	204	3.27	3.41	
	408	3.34	2.68	

¹ No product was added to the positive control digest. The concentration shown indicates that dilution of the digest was the same as that used for the corresponding ferric tyrosine digest.

Table 7. Effect of ferric tyrosine on the growth of *Escherichia coli* 156/97 F4+ and *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain IR715 and the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC).

Bacterium	Ferric tyrosine (mg/L)	Turbidity at 600 nm				MIC (mg/L)
		¹ Positive control digest		Ferric tyrosine digest		
		4h growth	20h growth	4h growth	20h growth	
<i>E. coli</i>	0.39	0.20	0.38	0.19	0.36	> 200
	0.78	0.17	0.38	0.18	0.34	
	1.56	0.16	0.35	0.18	0.36	
	3.12	0.15	0.32	0.19	0.36	
	6.24	0.15	0.29	0.20	0.37	
	12.5	0.15	0.23	0.20	0.37	
	24.9	0.16	0.20	0.20	0.37	
	49.9	0.14	0.15	0.20	0.36	
	99.8	0.15	0.15	0.19	0.33	
	200	0.17	0.15	0.18	0.31	
<i>S. enterica</i>	0.39	0.25	0.65	0.28	0.61	> 200
	0.78	0.26	0.64	0.27	0.61	
	1.56	0.25	0.65	0.28	0.61	
	3.12	0.22	0.62	0.28	0.62	
	6.24	0.24	0.63	0.28	0.62	
	12.5	0.25	0.61	0.28	0.62	
	24.9	0.25	0.61	0.27	0.63	
	49.9	0.26	0.60	0.27	0.62	
	99.8	0.26	0.49	0.24	0.61	
	200	0.25	0.41	0.23	0.64	

¹ No product was added with the positive control digest. The concentration shown indicates that dilution of the digest was the same as that used for the corresponding ferric tyrosine digest.

Figure captions

Figure 1. Boxplots showing the distribution of caecal *Campylobacter* spp. and *E. coli* counts at Day 42: **a.** Caecal *Campylobacter* spp. counts (\log_{10} CFU/g) grown on CCDA media, **b.** Caecal *Campylobacter* spp. counts (\log_{10} CFU/g) grown on Brilliance media, **c.** Caecal *E. coli* counts (\log_{10} CFU/g) grown on chromogenic media